

# **Ashley National Forest Assessment**

## **Cultural and Historic Resources Report**

### **Public Draft**

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# Introduction

This report assesses available information for historic and cultural resources and uses. The content of this assessment is based upon guidance found in FSM 1909.12, Chapter 10 (Assessments) and Section 13.8 (Cultural and Historic Resources and Uses).

Cultural and historic resources, and uses in the plan area, are important to understanding the social, economic, and ecological sustainability of the plan area. This plan area includes portions of northeastern Utah and Southwestern Wyoming, and the intermountain region of the United States. Currently, there are more than 2,500 known cultural resources documented in the plan area, including both prehistoric and historic remains. Cultural and historic resources within the plan area represent the processes and events important to the identity and history of local communities. Cultural resources contain a wealth of information regarding social and ecological conditions and changes through time. These conditions and changes include human successes and failures in coping with these transformations over the past ten millennia. This information can be of value to managers making decisions regarding contemporary and future ecological management, as well as in educating the public about the complex ecological sustainability of the plan area.

This assessment has been prepared to identify the current conditions of cultural resources in the plan area. The assessment will assist in identifying whether the current direction for cultural and historical resources needs to change in a revised land management plan. In addition, the assessment will help in developing components for the revised plan, including desired conditions, objectives, standards, guidelines, and suitability of lands. The assessment has been prepared as directed by 36 CFR 219.6(a) and (b)(13), and in accordance with Forest Service Handbook (FSH) 1909.12, chapter 10, sections 11 and 13.8.

A forest plan contains guidance, including standards and guidelines, to protect cultural and historic resources within the Forest. Many heritage resource values can be protected effectively through regulations. These regulations can be found under the National Historic Preservation Act (NHPA), the Native American Grave Protection and Repatriation Act (NAGPRA), the Archeological Resource Protection Act (ARPA), and others. Forest Service Policies for cultural and historic resources are found in Forest Service Manual 2360 and Forest Service Handbook 2309.12. The policies provide guidance on how the Forest should fulfill requirements mandated by federal laws and regulations.

## Information Sources and Needs

### Information Sources That Inform the Assessment

This assessment has been developed by using the best scientific information available to the Ashley National Forest. Scientific information on cultural and historic resources has been gathered by archaeologists, historians, and technicians since the 1970s, after Congress passed the National Historic Preservation Act in 1966. Information sources used to compile this assessment include cultural site records, previous cultural survey reports, geographic information system (GIS) databases, and Natural Resource Management (NRM) databases for the Ashley National Forest. Information was also compiled from Ashley National Forest historic contexts, Ashley National Forest records, historic documents, and local or regional histories. Guidance for gathering and managing information on cultural and historic resources on the Ashley is specified in the National Historic Preservation Act, in the Archaeological Resources Protection Act, in the Forest Service manual (FSM 2360), and in the Forest Service Handbook (FSH 2309.12).

## Information Needs

The Ashley National Forest evaluated information gaps and information needs regarding cultural and historic resources within the plan area. The cultural and historic information presented in this assessment is limited to the cultural and historic resources known to be on the Ashley National Forest. The information is not comprehensive or complete. Identified information gaps and needs include the following:

- Only 226,066 acres of the 1.38 million acres (16.6 percent) in the plan area have been systematically surveyed for cultural resources. Possibly thousands of cultural resource sites are yet to be documented within the plan area because the majority of the plan area (83.4 percent) has not been systematically surveyed for cultural resources. The unknown number and unknown nature of such sites contribute to a significant gap in providing an accurate assessment of cultural and historic resources within the plan area.
- Existing cultural resource inventories on the Ashley National Forest vary in intensity and accuracy. Previous cultural resource surveys, completed with transect intervals spaced more than 50m apart, are largely suspect in terms of their adequacy. The Ashley National Forest does not have confidence that such “reconnaissance level” inventories (approximately 115,338 acres) have identified all significant cultural resources within their boundaries.
- More than 200 documented cultural resource sites have not yet been evaluated for National Register eligibility. This represents a backlog of cultural sites without adequate documentation.
- Cultural resource sites documented prior to the year 2002 were mapped on U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) topographic maps by hand, using visible topographic features as a guide. Depending on the experience of the mapper and the mapper’s ability to interpret USGS topographic maps, the hand plotting of site locations could be inaccurate by as much as 200 meters from the actual location.
- Many cultural resources visited prior to 2002 were poorly documented and the site records typically did not include accurate site maps, adequate descriptions of artifacts and features, photographs, or adequate National Register justifications. Without accurate information on location and nature of cultural and historic resource sites, planning at the project level is difficult.
- The Ashley National Forest does not have an effective cultural resource monitoring program to measure the condition of sensitive cultural resources. Most cultural resource site condition assessments are more than five years old. Some condition assessments are more than 20 years old.

## Scale of Analysis

The scale of this analysis includes all lands within the Ashley National Forest planning area, as well as surrounding areas that have a cultural or historical connection to the plan area. When possible or feasible, the planning area has been divided into four sub-areas based on ranger district boundaries or physical boundaries. The four sub-areas include: the Flaming Gorge Unit, the Vernal Unit, the Duchesne-Roosevelt North Unit, and the Duchesne-Roosevelt South Unit (see Figure 1 through Figure 4).

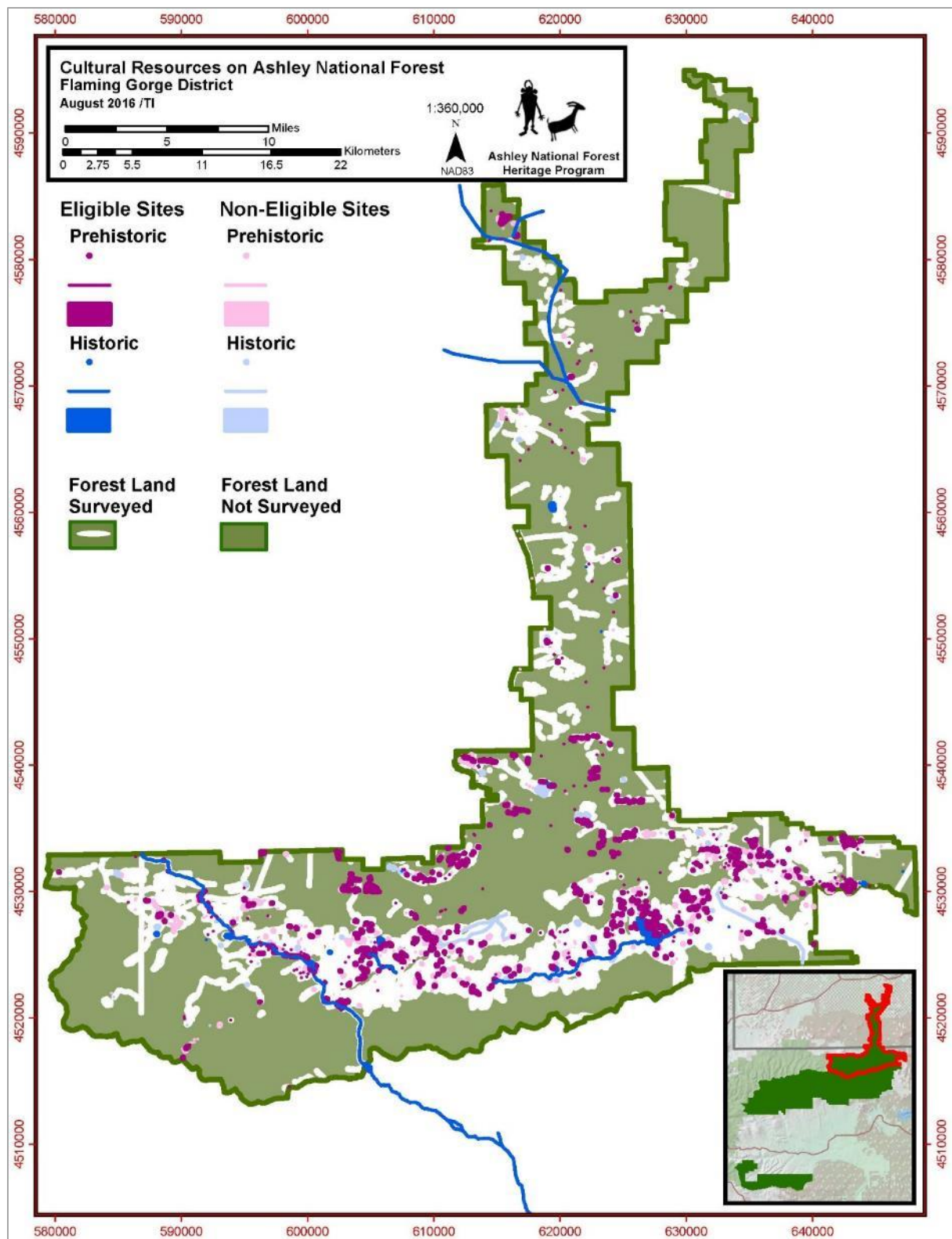


Figure 1. Map of cultural resource site and survey locations on the Flaming Gorge Unit

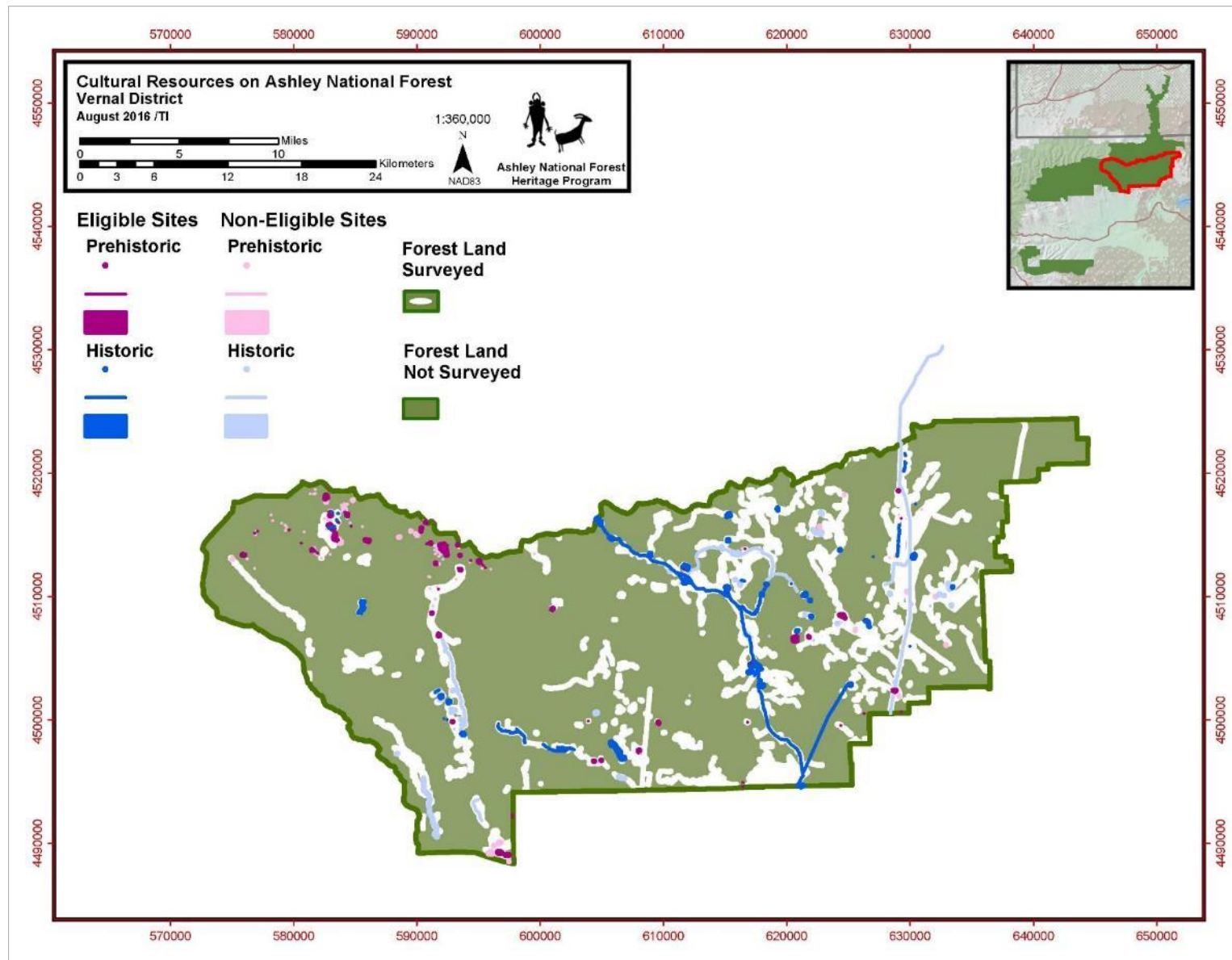


Figure 2. Map of cultural resource site and survey locations on the Vernal Unit



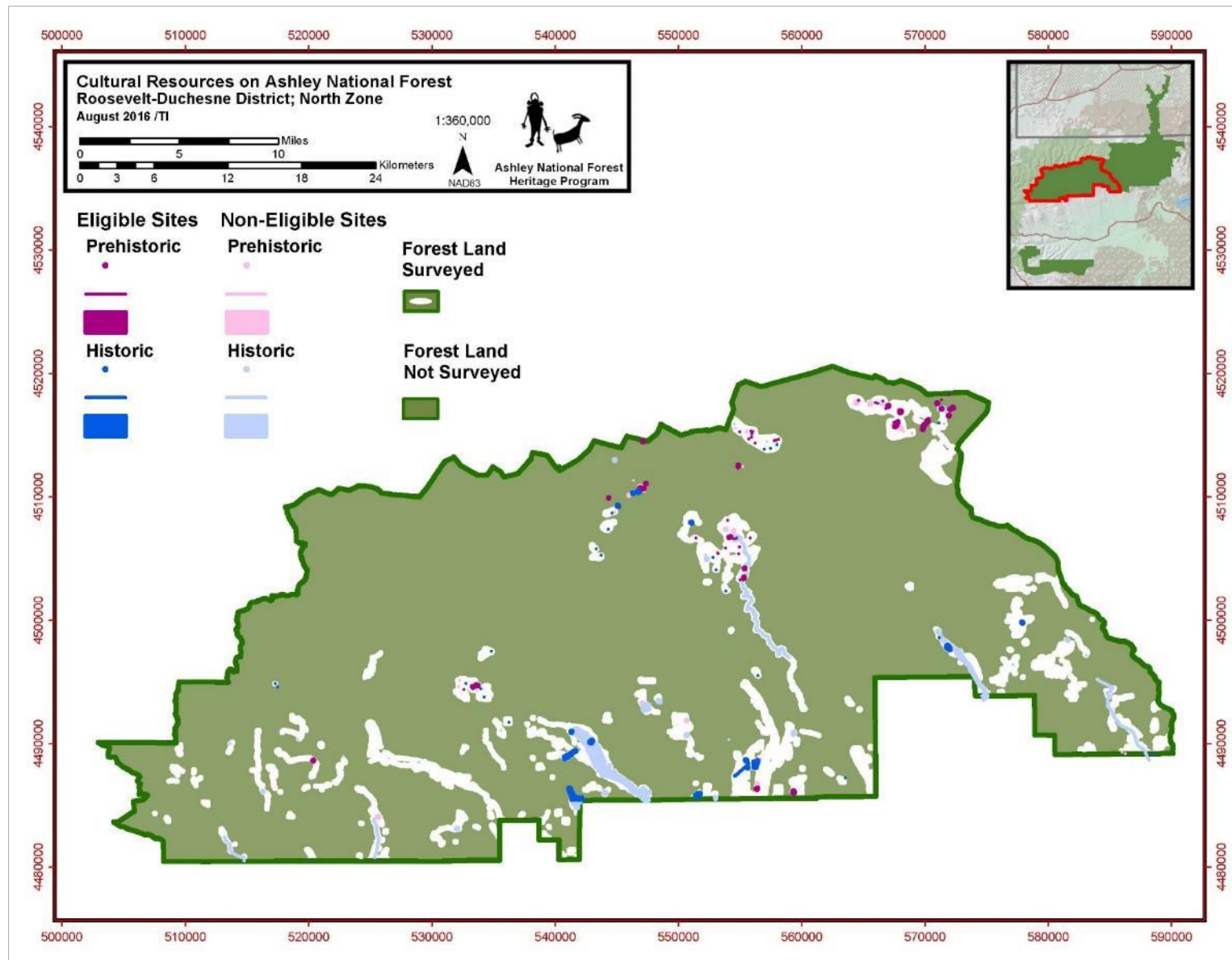
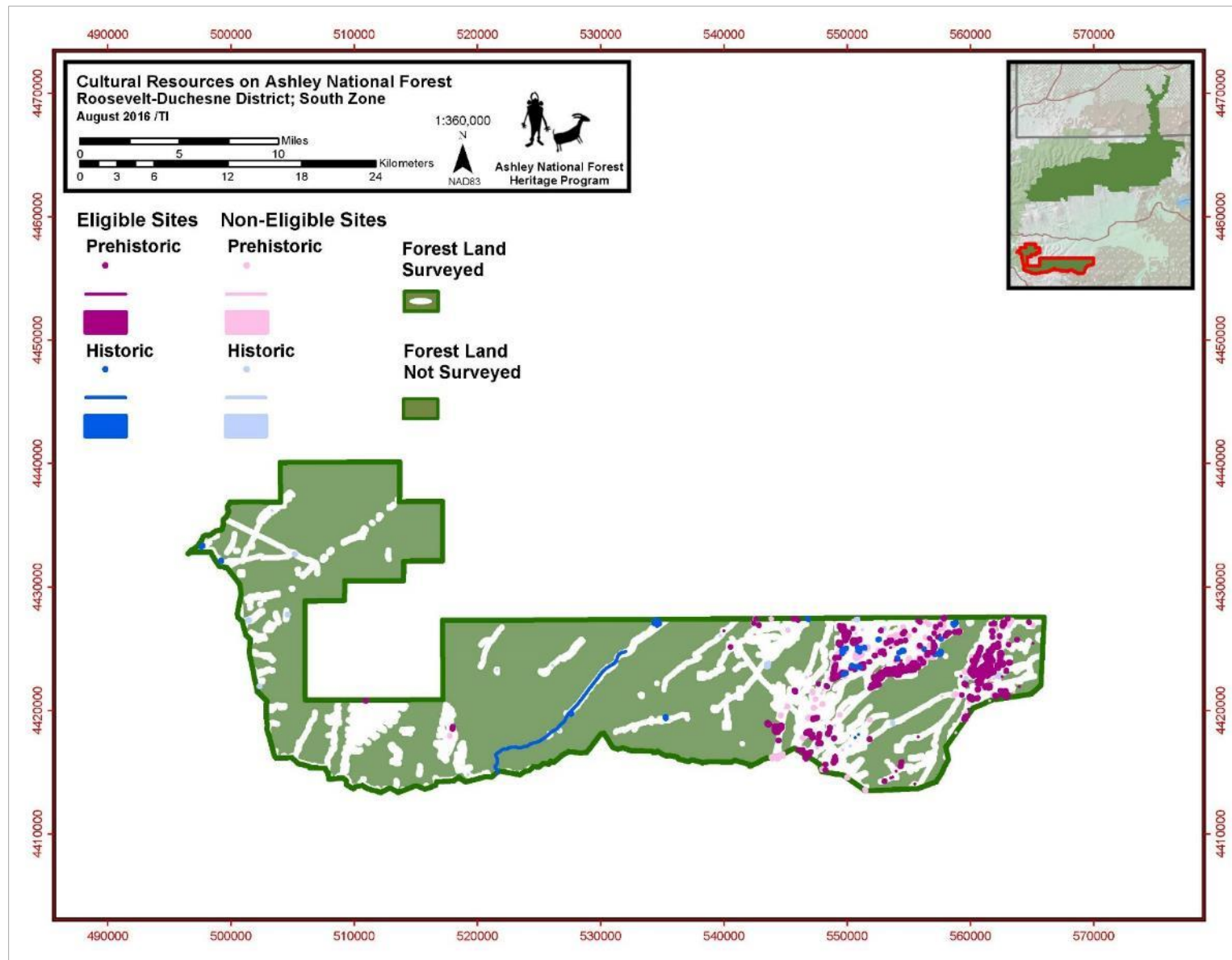


Figure 3. Map of cultural resource site and survey locations on the Duchesne-Roosevelt North Unit



# Cultural History

## Prehistory

A brief synthesis of the culture history of the plan area, in northeastern Utah and southwestern Wyoming, is included below. This cultural resource overview provides a general chronological description of cultural activities across the plan area.

### The Paleoindian Period (10,000 BC to 6,500 BC)

The Paleoindian period represents the earliest occupation of the Ashley National Forest. This period commenced with the arrival of humans in the area around 10,000 BC and concluded around 6,500 BC. The Paleoindian people are generally characterized as highly mobile. The Paleoindians followed and primarily subsisted on herds of now-extinct megafauna that were killed with spears, and later, with atlatl darts. The Paleoindian period is represented on the Ashley National Forest by infrequent surface finds.

### Archaic Period (6,500 BC to AD 100)

The Archaic era (6,500 BC to AD 100) was characterized by modern flora and fauna, a broad spectrum of which were utilized by foraging Archaic peoples. Seasonal rounds were timed to exploit peaking plant and animal resources. In mountainous areas, peak availability of some resources varies with elevation. Seasonal travel to various elevations could exploit this extended period of availability. Exploitation of various elevations also varied in response to climate change. At least some Archaic groups were seasonally (winter) sedentary in the lowlands. Typical artifacts or features include:

- rock lined storage and thermal features (including slab-lined basins)
- basketry
- nets
- snares
- groundstone
- atlatls and darts
- stemmed projectile points
- corner-notch and side-notch projectile points
- scrapers and occasional rock art

Caves and rockshelters were utilized, but ephemeral (brush structure) and more permanent (pithouse) habitations were also constructed (Johnson and Loosle 2002).

Early Archaic components at Dutch John (Loosle and Johnson 2000) were activity areas. These components included relatively substantial brush structures with internal hearths and pits, groundstone, and large sidenotch points, dated between 8005 and 6605 BP (before present). Late summer or fall season occupation appears to have focused on a combination of plant seeds and fauna. These structures and activity areas may represent a strategy of central place foraging. Later Archaic era components, dated between 4610 and 3290 BP at Dutch John, were typically slab-lined basins in open situations. The structures represented a highly mobile strategy focused on late winter or early spring season processing of roots, tubers, and possibly cactus pads. Smaller corner and side notched projectile points (Elko Series projectile points) replaced large side-notch points during the Late Archaic period. At Dutch John, hearth and roasting pit components in two rockshelters were dated to between 2784 and 1880 BP. Dramatic changes in mobility and feature type, documented at Dutch John (Loosle and Johnson 2000), indicate a

change in food gathering and processing between the Early Archaic period (8000-5000 BP) and the Late Archaic period (5000-2000 BP) in the eastern Uinta Mountains (Johnson and Loosle 2002).

### **Fremont Period (AD 100 to AD 1350)**

Around AD 100, the bow and arrow and domesticated crops such as corn, beans, and squash appear in the region. For the following thousand years, the lifestyle pattern of the indigenous people are characterized by permanent structures organized in hamlets or villages, more reliance on domesticated crops (cultigens), and the use of thin-walled ceramic vessels. In northeastern Utah, this period and culture is known as the Fremont. Although variable with location and elevation, Fremont sites tend to feature some combination of:

- Cultigens
- ceramics
- architecture
- constructed storage facilities
- distinctive rock art

In general, lowland sites tend to have the most evidence of sedentary occupation and the most extensive material inventory. Between AD 1100 and AD 1350, the Fremont pattern of cultigen use and traits include projectile point types and ceramic types. Farming appears to vanish from the region. Decreased sedentism and cultigen reliance thereafter are coupled with reduced storage and changes in occupation type, projectile points, ceramics, rock art and basketry techniques (Johnson and Loosle 2002).

Evidence of the Uinta Fremont variant, representing Fremont occupation in northeastern Utah, is most prevalent on the northern edge of the Uinta Basin, along the foot of the Uinta Mountains south slope. Introduction of corn and the bow and arrow probably occurred around AD 100, and ceramics by AD400. Lowland occupation typically occurred as small clusters of pithouses. Large lowland villages have not been securely identified, although occupational density did increase after AD 600. Occupational density, as measured by radiometric dates from the Uinta Basin, peaks between AD 600 and AD 1100, then declines abruptly. At Dutch John (Loosle and Johnson 2000), brush structures and open campsites with hearths and roasting pits, indicate short duration camps bracketed by (1-sigma range) dates of 1750 Cal BP and 925 Cal BP. Small Corner-notched projectile points (Rose Spring Series) are indicative of bow and arrow technology. Limestone tempered ceramics, more formal metates and domesticated crops (such as corn) occur in brush structures dating late in the period (1105-925 BP). Based on the Dutch John excavations, (Loosle and Johnson 2000) and on proxy data from the surrounding areas, the Formative period interval is between AD 100 and AD 1350.

### **Late Prehistoric (AD 1300 to AD 1600)**

Between AD 1100 and AD 1350, the people in the Uinta Basin and along the Green River abandoned corn horticulture and returned to a strategy of hunting and gathering foods. A lifestyle of hunting and gathering results in greater mobility and a change from sedentary villages to more seasonal hunting camps across the landscape. Mobility also necessitates a reduction in personal materials and sees the abandonment of the Fremont ceramic tradition. Between AD 1300 and AD 1500, the archaeological record is very sparse, but shows that people during the period we call the “Late Prehistoric” used the bow and arrow for hunting (desert side notch and cottonwood triangular points) and gathered available plants and seeds. They used very expeditious thick-walled earthenware ceramics called “Intermountain Brownware,” and built temporary shelters of brush and logs.

## Protohistoric

The invasion of European peoples into the Americas changed the way of life for indigenous peoples, both directly and indirectly. European diseases spread across the Americas during the 1500s, killing an unknown number of native peoples. The Late Prehistoric peoples are most likely the ancestors of the Ute and Shoshone people, who were encountered by Euro-American explorers in the 1700s and 1800s.

## Ute

The Ute people inhabited much of the Colorado Plateau and are most likely descendants of the people living in the area during the “Late Prehistoric” period. The Ute hunted and gathered native plants and animals with highly mobile family groups. The introduction of the horse, especially after the pueblo revolt in 1680, changed the Ute lifestyle more dramatically than almost any other event. The introduction of European trade goods, such as metal axes, knives, metal arrowheads and firearms, forever changed the native inhabitants of the area. The Ute people maintained many cultural traditions and practices. But the influence of European animals, plants, diseases, and materials were forces of change that are not completely understood.

## Eastern Shoshone

The Eastern Shoshone historically represent several bands of Shoshonean-speaking peoples. The Shoshone traveled extensively in Western Wyoming, Utah and Southern Idaho, as semi-nomadic hunter-gatherer groups (Hanson and Chirinos 1997; Cuch 2000). Linguistically, the Shoshone, Paiutes and Bannocks are related under the term Neme (The People) (Cuch 2000). The Eastern Shoshone are part of and descendants of this larger linguistic group, who occupied the region during the Late Prehistoric. Historically, the Eastern Shoshone inhabited lands now part of the Ashley National Forest. The lands include the northern slope of the Uinta Mountains, from the northeast corner of Utah (bordering Colorado and Wyoming), stretching west to the northeast portion of Salt Lake, north into Wyoming encompassing the Green River, and north into Idaho (Figure 2). During the Late Prehistoric or early historic period, the Eastern Shoshone adopted a Plains cultural lifestyle (Hanson and Chirinos 1997) sometime after the 15th century (Fagan, 1995 pp. 141-142).

## European Contact (AD1536 to AD1847)

The year 1492 commenced a period of massive changes across the American continents, as European peoples began to exploit available resources and claim lands inhabited by indigenous peoples. From 1536 to 1821, most of the western United States, including the plan area, was claimed by the kingdom of Spain. Locally, the Ute and Eastern Shoshone Indians were not directly affected by the claims of Spain. But the Indians were affected by the spread of horses, trade goods, and the spread of European diseases.

Native Americans in northeastern Utah and surrounding areas were Numic-speaking Ute, Shoshone, and (possibly) Comanche. Many of these people practiced a mobile foraging lifeway over large areas, often using horse transportation (Johnson and Loosle 2002:16). Little or no written evidence survives from between AD 1776 and AD 1821, when the area was under Spanish rule. The few Spanish trade routes or exploration parties (such as Escalante and Dominguez in 1776) were closely controlled by the Spanish government. The area was closed to exploration by people of other nationalities during that period.

In 1821, Mexico (including what is now Utah) gained independence from Spain. Mexican control of trade was very lax and the Rocky Mountains experienced an influx of Euro-American fur trappers. The fur trappers hoped to take advantage of the abundance of fur bearing animals in an area, now void of Spanish rule. Americans, French and British fur trappers quickly began to explore Mexico's northern territory. Trade with the American Indians was enhanced by the establishment of trading posts along the

Green River. "Sheltered valleys of the Uinta Mountains region became popular winter campsites during the fur trading era" (Loosle *in* M. Johnson 1998). Henrys Fork, Little Hole and Dutch John Flat, and Browns Hole provided somewhat temperate microclimates where winter months were a little easier. During the fur trapping era, Browns Hole (later in the century to be known as Browns Park) was occupied by Shoshone and Ute Indians, with the Shoshone also occupying the Henrys Fork area. In 1827, Fort Davy Crockett, a fur trading post in Browns Hole, was established (Loosle and Johnson 2000).

By the mid-1840s, the region's fur bearing animals had been over-exploited and the demand for lucrative beaver pelts had declined because of fashion changes in Europe. Trade relationships with the Utes and other tribes soured when Euro-American trappers were no longer willing to pay for pelts brought by the native people. Euro-American trading posts and forts, such as Fort Robidoux near Whiterocks, were burned by disillusioned Utes. The trade networks were essentially dissolved.

## Recent History

### **Euro-American Settlement and the Displacement of the American Indian (AD 1847 to AD 1882)**

The arrival of thousands of Euro-American Mormon settlers along the Wasatch Front, beginning in 1847, set off a series of conflicts between the new arrivals and the Ute bands already living in the Utah and Salt Lake Valleys. Utah and the surrounding areas were ceded to the United States from Mexico in 1848. Also, westward expansion, settlement, and development by Euro-American Immigrants began with a fury.

In order to solve the land conflicts between the Ute bands and the newly arrived Euro-Americans, the U.S. Government set aside much of the Uinta Basin as a reservation for the Utes. The Uinta Basin had been previously surveyed by Mormon settlers and deemed undesirable for Euro-American settlement. By 1865, all Utes along the Wasatch Front were being moved to the Uinta Valley Reservation. In a similar way, Ute Bands in Colorado were also moved onto two Reservations, one on the White River and one near the Uncompahgre River.

Captain Parson Dodds arrived in late 1868 with seven other employees at Whiterocks, known originally as Uintah Valley. Captain Dodds was the first Indian agent on the newly created Uintah Valley Indian Reservation. Whiterocks was the Indian agency's permanent headquarters. By the following year, Whiterocks was Uintah County's first Euro-American settlement. Dodds, recognizing the agricultural potential of the area, chose to settle near the reservation in 1873 after completing his term as Indian agent. Other Euro-American immigrants followed Dodds to Ashley Valley soon thereafter and started the Ashley settlement (Wilson 2015).

The Colorado Gold Rush of 1859 brought hundreds of prospectors and mining camps into Ute Territory in western Colorado. The Ute Bands in Colorado were forced to relinquish their land to the United States and were moved onto Reservations in Colorado.

In 1879, conflict arose at the White River Agency headquarters in northwestern Colorado when White River Utes became upset with Agent Nathan Meeker's attempts to reform them into an agricultural society. In September of 1879, when Meeker plowed under one of the Ute's favorite pastures used for horses, a local Ute Chief (Chief Johnson) had a heated argument with Meeker and hurled him against a hitching rail. Thoroughly frightened, Meeker called for military protection. Major Thomas Thornburgh and four cavalry companies (about 178 men) were dispatched from Fort Steel, Wyoming to protect Meeker. When the White River Utes learned that troops were being sent to the reservation, the Utes immediately began to prepare to defend their land. When the military column arrived, Thornburgh and his men were met by more than 300 mounted Utes. Eleven soldiers, including Thornburgh and thirty-

seven Utes, died in the resulting battle. At the same time, Meeker and 10 employees were killed at the Agency by renegade Ute warriors. (Simmons 2000; Lyman and Denver 1970).

Colorado settlers in the area immediately declared that the Utes were in open rebellion and called for their removal. By 1882, additional lands were added to the Uintah Valley Reservation. The Utes on the White River Reservation were forced to leave their homelands and move to the Uintah Basin. Euro-American settlers in Colorado, and the Colorado Governor, also insisted that the Utes on the Uncompahgre Reservation be moved to the Uinta Basin. This order came even though the Utes, led by Chief Ouray and his wife Chipeta, had not been involved with the Meeker incident nor had they been uncooperative with reservation administrators. After the Utes from the reservation in Colorado were moved to the Uinta Basin, their reservation lands in Colorado were opened up for Euro-American settlement (Duncan 2000).

Starting In 1894, Congress passed several bills that allotted a specified number of acres to each adult male Ute Indian, and then opened up the rest of the Uintah Valley reservation for Euro-American settlement. In 1934, congress passed the Indian Self Determination Act, which allowed American Indian Tribes to develop their own constitution and be relatively self-governing. All remaining un-allotted (public) lands within the original Uintah Valley treaty boundary were recognized as tribal property.

## Forest Administration

The Uinta Forest Reserve was created on February 22, 1897, from un-allotted public lands, including lands formerly within the Uintah Valley Indian Reservation. On July 1, 1908, President Theodore Roosevelt signed Executive Order 884. This order established the Ashley National Forest, with 952,086 acres from the Uinta National Forest. The Ashley National Forest took in what had been the Uinta National Forest's northeast end. The Ashley National Forest's western border was the Lake Fork River on the south slopes of the Uinta Mountains, and the east Fork of Smith's Fork on the north slope of the Uintas. Minor acreage changes were also made by Presidential Proclamation 1093 on October 7, 1910 and by Proclamation 1409 on November 26, 1917.

The Ashley National Forest's northwest end grew by 30,000 acres when an administrative boundary adjustment in 1926 transferred the East Fork Smith's Fork drainage from the Wasatch National Forest to the Ashley National Forest. This action placed the boundary between the two national forests on the ridge to the west of East Fork Smith's Fork.

On May 3, 1926, Proclamation 1772 added a 2,240-acre tract around Phil Pico Mountain. This addition, located near the Wyoming border and west of Manila, was eliminated from the Ashley National Forest in 1970.

On April 2, 1930, Proclamation 1903 added 13,785 acres. The acreage included the Little Hole Addition in Daggett County and the East End Addition in Uintah County. Both of these areas extended the Ashley's eastern boundaries.

Public Land Order 571 assigned part of the old Fort Bridger Military Reservation in Wyoming to the Ashley National Forest on January 26, 1931.

Two adjustments occurred in 1933, beginning with the Green River Addition on February 18. Proclamation 2030 added this 43,525-acre area to the Ashley National Forest's northeast corner. On November 7, 1933, Executive Order 6409 transferred the westernmost 16,873 acres of the 1931 Fort Bridger addition to the Wasatch National Forest. In turn, the Ashley National Forest gained the northeast part of the Wasatch National Forest. This addition is a 30,043-acre area that included Gilbert Meadow, Bridger Lake, China Meadows, Flat Top Mountain, and Castle Lake.

The 1950s significantly altered the Ashley National Forest's land area and administrative structure. In February 1951, Forest Supervisor William D. Hurst met with the supervisors of the Uinta and Wasatch National Forests about adjusting boundaries between the three forests. The Forest Service formally authorized the intra-forest transfers on March 30, 1954 through Public Land Order 950, with the changes effective July 1, 1954. In the exchange, the Fort Bridger Ranger District ("the north slope of the Uinta Mountains west of the Burnt Fork Drainage") went from the Ashley National Forest to the Wasatch National Forest. The Ashley gained the Granddaddy Lakes District (the Rock Creek and Duchesne River drainages) from the Wasatch. The Ashley National Forest acquired the south unit (formerly Tabby Mountain and Avintaquin units) from the Uinta National Forest.

On October 1, 1968, the Flaming Gorge National Recreation Area was designated in Utah and Wyoming, and its management was assigned to the Ashley National Forest.

## Grazing

Grazing on the Uinta Mountains and within the Uinta Basin was the impetus for bringing the first Euro-American settlers to the area. Brigham Young's exploration party into the Uintah Basin in 1861 reported that the area was "fit only for grazing." Parson Dodds, the Ute Indian agent, realized the potential for stock and brought cattle to the area in 1868. In 1872, he resigned as agent to become a full time cattleman. Other settlers soon came to the area, and both cattle and sheep grazing soon became some of the primary industries of the area. Troubles sometimes developed between the cattle and sheep men, occasionally resulting in fights and even the killing of livestock.

With the creation of forest reserves and then national forests, tension often developed between local ranchers and the government representatives. The situation was no different in Vernal, where sheep men were very upset about government regulation. The condition was reaching a boiling point in 1905 when William Anderson arrived as forest supervisor and set up grazing allotments. The government presence brought some regulation to the use of the land, but these large herds changed the character of the land enormously. The primary concern for the rangers was grazing, or how overgrazing had damaged the watersheds. For several decades, Forest Service reports complained about the degradation of the range caused by overgrazing. In the year 1914, the Ashley National Forest permitted 96,110 sheep and 18,000 cattle and horses. By the year 1949, the number of livestock permitted on the Ashley had dropped to 75,000 sheep and 9,000 cattle.

## Irrigation and Water Storage

Settlers recognized the need to capture the plentiful water coming out of the Uinta Mountains in the spring if they were to have water for crops and animals in the dry late summer months of the year. Valley residents sought to extend their growing season by building dams to capture spring run-off, and then release the water during dry summer months. Settlers in Dry Fork sought to capture the water disappearing into limestone sinks by diverting the water into flumes, ditches, and canals.

The 1910s saw multiple water management efforts. These efforts included the construction of dams, such as:

- East Park Reservoir
- Paradise Reservoir
- Chepeta Lake
- Ashley Twins
- Goose lakes



The New Deal era brought additional funds and labor for the construction of water storage features, such as dams for the Long Park Reservoir and the Oaks Park Reservoir (Wilson 2015).

Congress passed the Colorado River Storage Project Act in 1956, which authorized the Central Utah Project. The act allows the transportation of unused water from the streams on the south slope of the Uinta Mountains to the Bonneville Basin. It also authorized construction of four Central Utah Project units in the Uinta Basin: the Bonneville, the Vernal, the Jensen, and the Upalco. A similar act in 1968 paved the way for a fifth unit, the Uintah, and a feasibility study for the Ute Indian Unit (deauthorized in 1992) (Wilson 2015).

The Moon Lake Project was a New Deal development approved by President Franklin Roosevelt in 1935. The Moon Lake Water User's Association completed the Moon Lake Dam in 1938. The Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) built the associated Midview Dam, Duchesne Feeder Canal, and Yellowstone Feeder Canal in 1935-41 (Wilson 2015).

Perhaps the most notable reclamation accomplishment on the Ashley National Forest is the Flaming Gorge Dam. Congress authorized the dam's construction in 1956. After completion of a temporary access road and diversion of the Green River, a contractor poured the first bucket of concrete on September 18, 1960. Two years later, the dam was finished and began filling with water. Lady Bird Johnson dedicated the structure on August 17, 1964. The dam and its reservoir resulted in the creation of the Flaming Gorge National Recreation Area (Wilson 2015).

## **Timber and Logging**

The Uinta Mountains provide dense stands of lodgepole pine, ponderosa pine, spruce, Douglas-fir, pinyon pine, and juniper trees. The first substantial logging on what became the Ashley National Forest reportedly occurred in 1877 on Taylor Mountain. In 1880, Alma Johnstun brought the first sawmill to the area, transporting it from Park City to Dry Fork Mountain. Pat Carroll brought a sawmill to Ashley Valley around the same time. Additional sawmills, all cutting timber for local use, were on the Ashley National Forest by the early twentieth century (Wilson 2015).

In 1917, mills in the Uinta Basin produced 2.6 million board feet of lumber from timber harvested on the Ashley National Forest. The volume increased to 10 million board feet in 1935, and to 15 million board feet per year after World War II. In Daggett County, road improvement and development during the 1920s and 1930s increased lumber shipments to Green River and Rock Springs, both railroad towns in Wyoming. The Biorn family relocated a small sawmill from Idaho to Manila in 1938 and produced mine props and wedges for the next two decades. With an active timber industry, early rangers spent much of their time stamping and scaling logs (Wilson 2015).

Former Forest Supervisor Andrew McConkie considered the timber business to be low key until the mid-1950s. Fabrizo Mill (Hanna), Wagstaff Mill (Tabiona), Caldwell and Thomas Mills (Vernal), and Standard Saddle Tree Mill (Vernal) harvested the most timber. Production increased in the mid-1950s when the Great Lakes Timber Company relocated its sawmill from Wasatch County to Lapoint in Uintah County (Wilson 2015).

## **Mining**

The Uintah Basin is rich with minerals and is the world's only source of commercial quantities of asphaltites (Gilsonite and elaterite). Asphaltites, also called elastic bitumen, is found on and around the South Unit. Resembling mineral or vulcanized rubber, Asphaltites has waterproofing characteristics (Wilson 2015).

Early Utahans utilized the limestone in the surrounding topography to help them build their homes and communities. Evidence of lime kilns and limestone mining has been found on the Ashley National Forest, as well as on Bureau of Land Management land surrounding the Vernal and Roosevelt areas. Processed limestone was used for bricks, mortar, paint, and plaster.

The largest mining operation in the eastern Uintas manifested after copper ore was discovered on Dyer Peak in the 1880s. To support the operation, a copper smelter was built in 1899 on Anderson Creek, at the toe of Dyer Peak's eastern slope (Wilson 2015).

Phosphate also proved to be a major resource in the latter half of the twentieth century. J. Harry Ratliff found some during a visit to Diamond Mountain in 1916. By the 1920s, he had patented land totaling nearly 15,000 acres on the Ashley National Forest. However, phosphate development was negligible until the San Francisco Chemical Company acquired Ratliff's deposit in early 1959 and built a concentrating plant in 1960. The company eventually employed 200 people and, in 1965, produced more than 180,000 tons of phosphate concentrate (Wilson 2015).

## **Oil and Gas Development**

The first oil well was drilled in the Uintah Basin in 1900, but without success. Little activity occurred until World War II. Companies then drilled large wells and the Uintah Basin became a major producer of petroleum. The industry, subject to boom and bust cycles, continues to play a significant role in the Uintah Basin's economy (Wilson 2015). Oil-shale received some attention as early as 1917, but it wasn't until 1958 that oil-shale leases were issued for the first time. The energy crisis of the 1970s led to further exploration and production (Wilson 2015).

In 1997, the Ashley National Forest and the Uinta National Forest developed the "Western Uinta Basin Oil and Gas Leasing" decision, in cooperation with the Bureau of Land Management. This decision allowed the exploration, development, and production of oil and gas fields on both national forests. Over the next 10 years, leases were purchased and a small number of wells were developed. In 2007, Berry Petroleum Company proposed its Master Development Plan for full field development of their leases on the Duchesne-Roosevelt South Unit. Between 2009 and 2014, Berry Petroleum Company drilled more than 100 wells and constructed roads and well pads across their lease areas. In 2015, with the worldwide drop in oil prices, oil and gas development and production on the Ashley National Forest slowed to a standstill.

## **The Civilian Conservation Corps**

The 1930s brought difficult times to the United States. When the stock market crashed in October 1929, it plunged the nation into the worst economic depression in its history. By early 1933, the Forest Service's Intermountain region had leveraged improvement appropriations and unemployment relief funds to hire local men on 25 national forests. To assist as many families as possible, forest supervisors rotated work crews, even when it proved to be inefficient for the project (Wilson 2015).

As of late 1936, about 130 men worked for the Ashley National Forest as Federal Emergency Relief Administration (ERA) employees. They came from settlements on the Ashley's south side, including Vernal, Jensen, Lapoint, Whiterocks, and Altonah. Their main project was the reconstruction of a Forest Service telephone system. The system connected the Supervisor's Office in Vernal with ranger stations, Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) camps, and resident fire cooperators. The workers also built the Hick's Park counting corral near a sheep driveway, a trail to the proposed Taylor Mountain lookout tower, and the Paradise fire trail. Other projects included insect and disease control, maps and surveys, as well as range, fire, and recreation improvements. In the mid-1930s, Works Program Administration projects replaced most of the work conducted by ERA men (Wilson 2015).

While these early relief projects helped locals in dire circumstances, the CCC had a much greater impact, particularly on the national forests (Wilson 2015). In 1933, the Ashley National Forest received two of Utah's first CCC camps (Wilson 2015). The Smith's Fork Camp F-4 was on the North Slope and is now part of the Wasatch National Forest. The second, Camp F-3, was on the South Slope at Bullionville, an old mining camp (Wilson 2015: 23). Later CCC camps F-29, F-35, and F-37 were also located on the Ashley National Forest. The men from these CCC camps were responsible for building:

- the Ute Mountain fire lookout tower and weather station
- several ranger station buildings
- roads
- telephone lines
- drift fences
- stock driveways
- bridges
- pasture fences
- campgrounds
- stock ponds
- spring developments
- campground water developments
- timber stand improvements

## Recreation

By the mid-1920s, as the American middle class was enjoying a time of prosperity, the Ashley National Forest began to see more use of national forest lands for recreational activities. An increase in automobile manufacture and affordability provided more opportunities for the American public to travel and recreate in mountain settings. As automobile use increased, so did road construction and maintenance. To facilitate the mobility of Americans, the Forest Service and other State and Federal agencies began to develop campgrounds, picnic areas, and view areas.

As the public saw opportunities for more recreation, commercial mountain resorts also began to develop in the Uinta Mountains. The Moon Lake Resort was started in 1928 and Green Lakes Resort (now Red Canyon Lodge) was started in 1930.

As the 1920s came to a close, the U.S. fell into economic hard times during the Great Depression. The construction of recreation facilities in the West also slowed. As new deal programs such as the CCC and the Works Program Administration were implemented in the mid to late 1930s, the Ashley National Forest saw a massive surge in recreation developments. The CCC helped improve or develop numerous campgrounds, roads, trails, picnic areas, and other facilities. As the CCC built roads to previously inaccessible areas, commercial resorts could expand to previously undeveloped areas. The U-Bar Ranch was started in 1933 and the Three Lakes Lodge (now Spirit Lake Lodge) was started in 1936.

During the U.S. involvement in the Second World War (1941 to 1945), recreation activities and improvements on the Ashley slowed considerably, but began to surge almost immediately following the war. Rock Creek Resort was added to the Ashley in 1947, following World War II. By the early 1950s, the Forest Service saw a surge of recreational use. The Forest Service responded with plans to improve existing campgrounds and expand the number of campgrounds.

Congress designated the Flaming Gorge National Recreation Area on October 1, 1968 and assigned its management to the Forest Service. With the creation of the national recreation area, the Ashley National Forest grew by 113,800 acres. This growth included the Antelope, Buckboard, and Lucerne recreation areas initially constructed by the National Park Service. The development of the national recreation area also had a dramatic effect on the rest of the Ashley National Forest. Increased visitation to the Flaming Gorge National Recreation area also led to increased use across the Ashley National Forest. The Forest Service responded by upgrading or building multiple campgrounds outside the national recreation area.

## Current Conditions

Forest Service planning directives specify that the Forest Service should “describe the nature, extent, and role of existing conditions within the plan area and in the broader landscape” (FSH 1909.12, section 11.3).

## Overview of Cultural Resources on the Ashley National Forest

Cultural resources on the Ashley National Forest have been documented since the 1950s and have been typically found during cultural resources surveys on the national forest.

### Cultural Resource Surveys

Approximately 16 percent of the total Ashley National Forest area has been systematically surveyed for cultural resources. Ongoing surveys, which are completed as part of section 106<sup>1</sup> cultural resource compliance requirements, have demonstrated that numerous cultural resources could be present in areas not yet surveyed. Cultural Resource surveys can be categorized into intensive level surveys and reconnaissance level surveys.

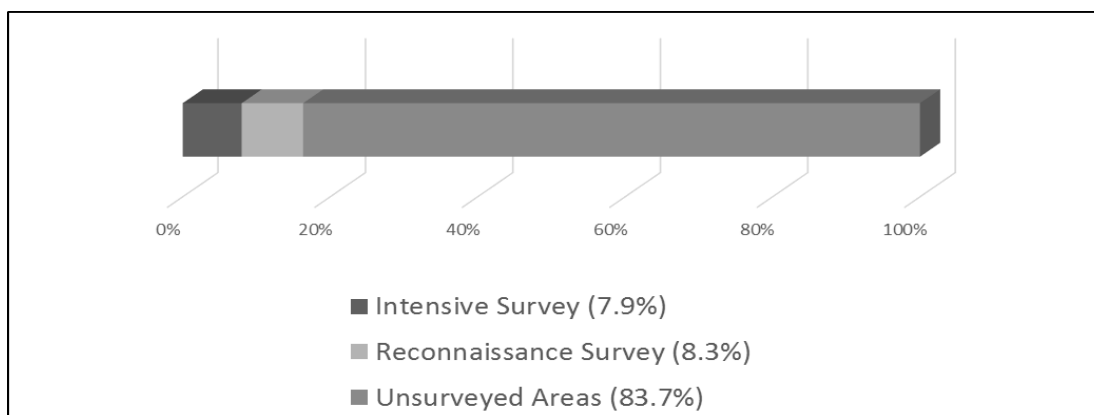
Intensive level surveys are systematically conducted by having individuals spaced 15 to 30 meters apart, walking transects across the landscape in order to identify and document any cultural resources. Intensive level surveys provide a high-resolution identification effort that typically will discover any significant cultural resource within the survey area.

Reconnaissance level surveys are rudimentary identification efforts. Reconnaissance level surveys are intended to find specific cultural site types or to give a general perception of cultural resources in the area. Reconnaissance level surveys are an expeditious method of survey to provide an overview or sample of cultural resources. These surveys rarely are able to identify all significant cultural resources within the survey area. Table 1 and Figure 5 provide a summary of cultural resources survey in the plan area as of July 2016.

**Table 1. Summary of acres surveyed for cultural resources (as of July 2016)**

Type of Survey	Survey Acres	% of Total Forest
Intensive Level Survey	110,728	7.9%
Reconnaissance Level Survey	115,338	8.3%
Unsurveyed Acres	1,158,066	83.7%
Total Forest Acres	1,384,132	100.0%

<sup>1</sup> Section 106 refers to a section of the National Historic Preservation Act that requires Federal agencies to consider the effects of federally funded projects on historic properties.



**Figure 5. Percentage of Ashley National Forest lands surveyed for cultural resources (as of July 2016)**

## Cultural Resource Sites

More than 2,500 cultural resources sites have been identified on the Ashley National Forest. Cultural sites are defined as discrete locations of human modified or constructed artifacts, features, or structures that are more than 50 years of age. Ashley National Forest generally divides cultural resources into two broad periods: historic and prehistoric. These general categories are based on the age of the cultural resources and the different uses on the landscape. Some areas show evidence of both prehistoric and historic use, and are termed multi-component because of their extended chronological use. The majority of cultural resources on the Ashley National Forest have been evaluated to determine if they are eligible to be listed on the National Register of Historic Places. A small percentage of cultural resources have not yet been evaluated for the National Register. Table 2 and Figure 6 summarize the National Register eligibility and the types of cultural resources sites in the plan area as of July 2016.

**Table 2. Summary of cultural resource sites by type on the Ashley National Forest (as of July 2016)**

Eligible for the NRHP?	Prehistoric	Historic	Multicomponent	Total
Eligible	937	113	64	1,114
Listed*	0	5	0	5
Not Eligible	938	221	32	1,191
Unevaluated	165	45	5	215
Total	2,040	384	101	2,525

NRHP = National Register of Historic Places

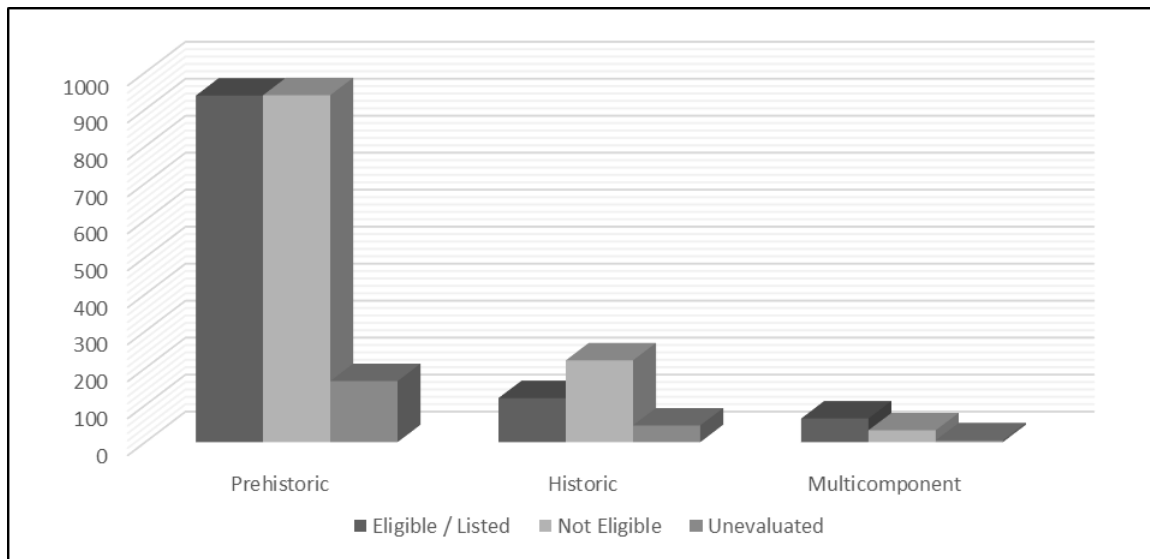


Figure 6. Summary of cultural resource sites on the Ashley National Forest (as of July 2016)

## Cultural Resource Site Types

Multiple types of cultural resources are found within the plan area and demonstrate human use of the landscape for more than 12,000 years. Table 3 lists the variety of cultural resources site types identified on the Ashley.

### Cultural Resource Site Type Descriptions

**Artifact Scatter:** A prehistoric site composed of a combination of two or more artifact types without any features being present. Artifact types often include a mixture of lithic (flaked stone) debris and tools, ground stone, and ceramic.

**Ash Stain/Hearth:** Prehistoric site containing either a soil stain, which appears darker than the surrounding sediments, or a fire hearth feature. This type of site often includes an associated artifact scatter.

**Brush Fences:** Fences constructed using cut and fallen pinon pine, juniper branches, and trees, as well as living trees to form driveline and fence walls. The drivelines usually lead to a brush corral. These brush fences are usually thought to be Native American constructions, dating from prehistoric to historic times.

**Building and Bridges:** Buildings and bridges that are constructed on the Ashley to serve the public, or used by Forest Service personnel to perform their duties. These sites include ranger stations, guard stations, dwellings, administrative buildings, fire towers, warehouses, visitor centers, and bridges.

**Cabins:** Wooden cabins built by private citizens for habitation or business purposes. These cabins are often associated with activities such as homesteading, sheep herding, and trapping.

**Culturally Modified Tree:** Culturally modified trees is a broad category that indicates purposeful modification to a tree by a human. Types of modification include axe scars, carved inscriptions/images, and bark removal scars. These modifications were performed by many cultural groups, including the Ute, Anglo and Hispanic groups. Tree types vary for each type of modification. Engravings are usually located on the bark of aspen trees, while bark removal scars usually appear on pines trees. Axe scars are not limited to tree type.

**Table 3. Summary of cultural resource site types on Ashley National Forest**

Site Types	Quantity	Cultural Periods
Artifact scatter	151	Archaic, Fremont, Late Prehistoric
Ash Stain / Hearths	175	Archaic, Fremont, Late Prehistoric
Brush Fences	31	Late Prehistoric, Historic
Buildings and bridges	65	Historic
Cabins	44	Historic
Culturally modified trees	7	Late Prehistoric, Historic
Dams and canals/ditches	44	Historic
Fences/corrals	22	Historic
Historic Artifacts	182	Historic
Hunting blinds	21	Late Prehistoric
Lithic Debris Scatter	1,074	Paleo, Archaic, Fremont, Late Prehistoric
Lithic Procurement / quarry	32	Archaic, Late Prehistoric
Lithic Tool and Debris Scatter	286	Paleo, Archaic, Fremont, Late Prehistoric
Mine site	24	Historic
Prehistoric Habitation sites	34	Archaic, Fremont, Late Prehistoric
Recreation Campground	10	Historic
Roads / Trails	24	Historic
Rock Art	22	Fremont, Ute
Rock-shelters	245	Archaic, Fremont, Late Prehistoric
Sawmill / timber camp	45	Historic
Slab lined basin	25	Archaic
Storage structures / granaries / baskets/ slab cists	31	Fremont
Structures / features	25	Historic
Wikiup	7	Late Prehistoric, Historic
<b>Total</b>	<b>2,626*</b>	

\*Totals include multicomponent sites, which are listed as both prehistoric and historic site types.

**Dams and Canals/Ditches:** Water storage and transportation features on the Ashley can range in size and include a variety of construction styles. Ditches and canals are usually dug into the earth, contouring the landscape. Larger scale efforts sometimes include features such as concrete and iron diversions. Dams on the Ashley vary from modified natural lakes to completely manmade constructions. While the size, construction materials, and building methods vary throughout the Ashley National Forest, many of the dams are earthen structures.

**Fences/Corrals:** Historic fences and corrals are usually related to ranching, grazing, and sheep herding. These features are often constructed to contain and control livestock (usually sheep or cattle) or indicate property ownership. Fence lines can define historic spaces, such as pastures, grazing allotments, and homestead or ranch boundaries. These types of features vary in construction style, and materials often using logs and/or wire. Some common styles include log worm, buck and rail, post and rail, post and wire/barb wire, and live trees with wire.

**Historic Artifacts:** Area containing historic artifacts without any additional defining features. This category ranges from sparse artifact scatters to concentrated artifact dumps. It includes a variety of artifacts types.

**Hunting Blinds:** Hunting blinds types range between stacked or upright rock constructions, or pits dug into talus (glacial rock deposit) slopes. These sites occur in areas with good views of game trails, such as ridges or slopes overlooking narrow valleys.

**Lithic Debris Scatter:** This is a prehistoric site composed solely of lithic (flaked stone) debris, without any lithic tools, other artifact types or features.

**Lithic Procurement/Quarry:** This is a natural lithic (flaked stone) material source area that has been obviously utilized by humans. Evidence includes tested boulders/cobbles that have been flaked to determine the quality of the material for use on lithic (flaked stone) tools. Evidence also includes numerous primary flakes (initial fragments flaked from the stone).

**Lithic Tool and Debris Scatter:** A prehistoric site composed of lithic debris with some lithic tools. These tools include bi-facially or unifacially flaked scrapers, knives, multi-use tools, and projectile points.

**Mine Site:** Sites associated with mining and quarry activities. These include mine shafts and adits, quarries, smelters, limekilns, associated camps or cabins and outbuildings, prospecting pits, back dirt piles, shoring, and wooden platforms.

**Prehistoric Habitation Sites:** Habitation sites usually include some sort of structural remains. Remains can include depressions and rock alignments, or evidence of a living area, sometimes a rock shelter, in addition to hearth/thermal features and artifact scatters or middens (mounds of debris).

**Recreation Campground:** A site within the Forest or National Recreation Area boundary that has been developed by the government for public use for recreational camping. Campgrounds often include small areas reserved for camping, with amenities such as: parking, picnic tables, water spigots, fire pits, and toilet facilities among other features.

**Roads/Trails:** Transportation routes showing repeated travel through or to certain parts of the landscape. Types include wagon roads, automobile roads, a Ute trail, a Cherokee trail, military roads, mine roads, and roads linking communities/settlements.

**Rock Art:** Rock art includes Native American petroglyphs and pictographs. Petroglyphs are images carved or pecked into rock. Pictographs refer to painted images. Some rock art incorporates both paint and carving/pecking.

**Rock shelter:** Rock shelters include natural caves, crevices, and overhangs that have been utilized by humans. Rock shelters often have associated features and/or artifact scatters.

**Sawmill/Timber Camp:** Sites associated with the timber industry including sawmills where the timber was cut into lumber, and timber camps where the loggers lived and worked.

**Slab Lined Basin:** Cooking feature composed of a hole/ basin lined with local rock materials. The cooking feature has been linked to the Archaic period within the Ashley National Forest.

**Storage Structure/Granaries/Baskets/ Slab Cists:** Storage features such as earthen pits, granaries, inverted baskets, and slab cists have been attributed to the Fremont culture. Granaries are food/grain storage containers built with local stone and natural cervices, jacal, and wood. Worn burden baskets were also used as storage containers after being inverted and buried. Slab cists are the most common type of storage feature on the Ashley National Forest and are usually composed of three rock slabs against a rock wall in form rectangular feature. These storage features have been found with corncobs inside.



**Structure/Feature:** Other historic structures and features which do not fit into the common categories include: site with rock cairns, depressions, flumes, fire pits, telephone lines, stone inscriptions, pipelines, spring improvements, utility houses, and a whiskey still.

**Wikiup:** Conical-shaped habitation structures made of tree poles, often free standing or built against larger trees. Wikiups are known to have been constructed by the Utes.

## National Register-listed Properties

Five cultural resources on the Ashley National Forest are listed on the National Register of Historic Places, as of July 2016 (Table 4). Listing on the National Register indicates the resource has significance in American history, architecture, archeology, engineering, or culture. National Register eligible cultural resources are defined in 36 CFR 60.4 and can be in districts, sites, buildings, or structures. The resources can also be objects that possess integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association, and that meet one of the following criteria:

1. That are associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history; or
2. That are associated with the lives of persons significant in our past; or
3. That embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction; Or that represent the work of a master, or that possess high artistic values, or that represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction; or
4. That have yielded, or may be likely to yield, information important in prehistory and history.

**Table 4. National Register-listed properties on Ashley National Forest as of July 2016**

Forest Site No.	State No.	Site Name	National Register Status
AS-0095	42DA157	Ute Mountain Fire Lookout Tower	Listed
AS-0147	42DA191	Swett Ranch Historic Homestead	Listed
AS-0151	42DA208/42UN823	Carter Military Road	Listed
AS-0192	42DC347	Stockmore Ranger Station	Listed
AS-0193	42DC348	Indian Canyon Ranger Station	Listed

### Ute Mountain Fire Lookout Tower (AS-0095 / 42DA157)

On April 20, 1980, the Ute Mountain Fire Tower was listed on the National Register of Historic Places. The fire tower's areas of significance include architecture, communications, and fire detection. The tower is eligible under Criterion A for its association with the CCC and Forest Service fire management, and under Criterion C as the only standing fire lookout tower in the state of Utah built with a habitation cab on the tower.

The Ute Mountain Fire Lookout Tower site was built by the CCC enrollees from the Manila Camp F-35 between 1936 and 1937. The tower was used to detect fires until 1968. Upon its retirement as a fire detection facility the Ashley National Forest decided to use the facility as a historic interpretive site for the public and opened it as such after repairs in 1987. The tower was open to the public until 2008 when it was closed a second time for repairs and restoration. It reopened as a historic interpretive site in 2014.

### **Swett Ranch Historic Homestead (AS-0147 / 42DA191)**

The Swett Ranch Historic Homestead was listed on the National Register of Historic Places in 1979 and the Utah State Register of Historic Places in 1972. The Swett homestead dates back to 1909 and was used by the Swett family until 1968. The ranch is an example of an American pioneer lifestyle that used minimal modern technology and utilized the natural resources. The Ashley National Forest acquired the land in 1972 and uses it as an historical interpretive site.

### **Carter Military Road (AS-0151 / 42DA208 / 42UN823)**

The Carter Military Road was listed on the national Register of Historic place on May 23, 2001. The road's areas of significance include military and transportation. The Carter military road was built and used by the US Army between 1881 and 1884. The road was used to ship supplies from Fort Bridger in southwestern Wyoming, 86 miles across the Uinta Mountains, to Fort Thornburgh in northeastern Utah. After the Army stopped its use, the road was used for mining purposes in the 1890s and by local residents as access to the Ashley Valley until 1924.

Thirty-six of the 86 miles of the Carter Military Road cross Ashley National Forest. The sections of the route that exist within the Ashley have been marked with concrete pillars.

### **Stockmore Ranger Station (AS-0192 / 42DC347)**

The Stockmore Ranger Station was listed on the National Register on November 12, 1999. The station, as headquarters of the Hanna and Granddaddy Lakes ranger districts from 1914 to 1954, played an important role in the management of public lands. The site, as a whole, is not eligible for listing on the National Register due to a loss of integrity. Most buildings, structures, and landscape features from its period of significance are gone. As the only remaining structure from that era, the Stockmore Dwelling is individually eligible for the National Register. The ranger station is important under Criterion A for its association with Forest Service management of public lands during the early 20th century. Stockmore is also significant under Criterion C as one of few remaining examples of Forest Service construction and design before the New Deal era. Areas of significance are Conservation and Architecture.

### **Indian Canyon Ranger Station (AS-0193 / 42DC348)**

The Indian Canyon Ranger Station was listed on the National Register of historic places on October 28, 1999. The station was built in 1914 as one of the first headquarters constructed on the Uinta National Forest. The ranger station played an important role in the administration of public lands in the early twentieth century. The dwelling is one of few remaining examples of a standard plan issued by the Forest Service's Washington Office in 1908. Despite its poor condition, the ranger station retains a high degree of integrity. The ranger station is important under Criteria A and C with areas of significance including Conservation, Politics/Government, and architecture.

## **Traditional Cultural Properties**

Traditional cultural properties are those areas of cultural significance identified by extant American Indian tribes, and other groups such as Mormon communities. These properties can include but are not limited to mountains, hills, springs, collecting areas, burial grounds, and unique landscape features.

National Register Bulletin 38 provides guidance for documenting and evaluation Traditional Cultural Properties. The Ute Tribe has suggested that traditional plant collecting areas could possibly be considered traditional cultural properties. However, no specific areas have yet been identified.

## Assessing the Condition of Cultural and Historic Resources

### Cultural Resource Condition Assessment

Ashley National Forest has evaluated the condition of 1,455 cultural sites on the Ashley, as part of cultural site visits and site documentation. Cultural site conditions indicate the degree to which cultural site integrity is being actively impacted. Various factors can degrade or impact site integrity and may include:

- public use
- Forest Service management activities
- timber activities
- range activities
- environmental deterioration

Table 5 portrays current status of site condition assessments for the 2,253 sites on Ashley National Forest that have been input into the Heritage Database used for tracking heritage resources. Thirty-five of the condition assessments have been completed in the last five years, all other condition assessments were completed prior to 2011. The Ashley National Forest has never completed condition assessments for 798 cultural resources on the Ashley.

**Table 5. Site condition assessments as of July 2016**

Condition	Condition Description	Number of Sites
No Data	No Condition assessment has been completed	798
Excellent	There are no ongoing impacts to cultural site integrity	181
Good	There are a minor ongoing impacts to cultural site integrity	617
Fair	There are moderate ongoing impacts to cultural site integrity	420
Poor	There are major ongoing impacts to cultural site integrity	237
Total		2,253

### Priority Heritage Assets

In order to effectively manage cultural or heritage resources on the Ashley National Forest, the Forest Heritage Program is expected to designate significant cultural sites as priority heritage assets, with the requirement to consistently monitor their condition over time.

In July 2016, 64 cultural resources on the Ashley National Forest were designated as Priority Heritage Assets. Table 6 lists the Ashley National Forest Priority Heritage Assets, their status, and date of their most recent condition assessment.

**Table 6. Summary of priority heritage assets**

Forest Site No.	State Site No.	Site Name	Condition	Date of Assessment
AS-0037	42DC233	Antelope Canyon Rockshelter 1	Good	2007
AS-0040	42DC236	Antelope Canyon Historic Corral	Good	2015
AS-0072	42DA145	Dripping Springs	Poor	2015
AS-0089	48SW83	Lucerne Petroglyphs	Fair	2012
AS-0095	42DA157	Ute Fire Tower	Excellent	2013

Forest Site No.	State Site No.	Site Name	Condition	Date of Assessment
AS-0107	42DA00205	Mustang Ridge Rockshelter	Poor	2015
AS-0147	42DA191	Swett Ranch Historic Homestead	Good	2011
AS-0151	42DA208; 42UN823	Carter Military Road	Good	2009
AS-0152	48SW1644	Confluence Petroglyphs	Good	2010
AS-0156	42DC316	Gilsonite Ridge Rockshelter 1	Good	2009
AS-0157	42DC317	Gilsonite Ridge Rockshelter 2	Fair	2009
AS-0158	42DC323	Nutters Spring	Good	2007
AS-0159	42UN821	Dry Fork Historic Flume	Fair	2014
AS-0166	42DA216	Stringham Historic Cabin	Good	2015
AS-0170	42DC327	Yellowstone CCC Camp	Fair	2008
AS-0185	42UN976	Brownie Canyon Pictographs	Excellent	2007
AS-0191	48SW88	Henry's Fork Petroglyphs	Fair	2012
AS-0192	42DC347	Stockmore Ranger Station	Fair	2012
AS-0193	42DC348	Indian Canyon Guard Station	Poor	2008
AS-0261	42UN1367	Colton Guard Station	Good	2015
AS-0271	42UN1417	Kiln Site	Fair	2010
AS-0280	42DA372	Lodgepole Canal Site	No current data	None
AS-0281	42UN1419	Trout Creek Guard Station	Good	2009
AS-0283	42UN1422	Elkhorn Guard Station	No current data	None
AS-0289	42DA373	Negalusco Site	No current data	None
AS-0306	42UN1432	Paradise Guard Station	Good	2014
AS-0307	42DC2149	Uinta Park Guard Station	Good	2015
AS-0334	42DC532	Yellowstone Guard Station	Good	2015
AS-0337	42UN1434	Grasshopper Flat Lime Kiln	Good	2007
AS-0353	42DC569	Historic Lime Kiln	No current data	None
AS-0363	42DA468	Carter Creek Granary	Excellent	2011
AS-0394	48SW8319	Haystack Buttes (Massacre Hill Dune) Site	Fair	2008
AS-0422	42DA532	Death Valley Rockshelters	Good	2007
AS-0434	42DA545	Summit Springs Rockshelter	Good	2012
AS-0435	42DA1650	Summit Springs Guard Station	Good	2014
AS-0623	42DA669	Allen Creek Lower	Fair	2012
AS-0673	42DA722	Sonders Basket Site	Good	2015
AS-0768	42DA771	Greendale Rockshelter 1	Fair	2012
AS-0773	42DA776	Bison Shelter	Good	2012
AS-0780	42DA783	Greendale Pit A-4 Rockshelter	Fair	2012
AS-0788	42DA791	Allen Creek Village	Good	2012
AS-0800	42UN2286	Dry Fork Flume Mill Site	No current data	None
AS-1053	42DC1208	Gilsonite Ridge Brush Fences	Poor	2013
AS-1084	42DC1239	Horseman Rockshelter	Good	2015
AS-1112	42DA1005	Reaves Two, Excavations	Fair	2008

Forest Site No.	State Site No.	Site Name	Condition	Date of Assessment
AS-1168		Altonah Guard Station	Fair	2008
AS-1170	42DA1063	Chokecherry Pictographs	Fair	2007
AS-1443	42DA1269	Finch Draw Rockshelter	Fair	2013
AS-1453	42DA1294	3 Granaries	Good	2015
AS-1460	42DC1606	Jeep Trail Ridge Brush Fences	Fair	2014
AS-1462	42DC1608	Nutter's Canyon 3 - Horse Petroglyph	No current data	None
AS-1463	42DC1609	Nutter's Canyon 4 - Brush Fence Line	No current data	None
AS-1539	42UN3435	Chalk Cliff 2 Rock Art	Poor	2009
AS-1544	42DA1389	Red Canyon 1	Excellent	2015
AS-1546	42DA1391	Red Canyon 3	Excellent	2015
AS-1547	42DA1392	Red Hand Rockshelter	Good	2015
AS-1549	42DA1394	Red Canyon 6	Excellent	2015
AS-1566	42DA1411	Red Canyon 23	Good	2014
AS-1571	42DA1416	Red Canyon 28	Good	2009
AS-1579	42DA1424	Red Canyon 36	Good	2016
AS-1615	42DC1859	Nutters Ridge Rockshelters	Fair	2012
AS-1617	42DC1861	Breadknife Shelter	Good	2011
AS-1997	48SW17728	Swim Beach Site	Fair	2012
AS-2507	42DA2026	Red Canyon Storage Features	Excellent	2013

## Artifact Assemblage

As of July 2016, the Ashley National Forest has more than 55 cubic feet of boxed artifacts and curated materials. These materials are housed in a Forest Service shed and do not meet Federal curation standards specified in 36 CFR 79. Ashley National Forest also has limited collections housed by Weber State University and the Utah Fieldhouse State Park, which maintain facilities that meet Federal curation standards. The Ashley National Forest maintains artifact displays, files, and archives at the Forest Supervisor's office, where they are in a temperature-controlled and secure environment. The Ashley National Forest maintains artifact displays at the Red Canyon Visitor Center and at the Daggett County Courthouse. These displays do not meet Federal security standards for curation facilities, but provide broad outreach opportunities.

## Trends and Issues

Forest Service planning directives state that planning teams are to "describe the nature, extent, and role of trends within the plan area and in the broader landscape" [FSH 1909.12 Section 11.3].

The trends in cultural resource management, identification, documentation, monitoring, preservation, and stewardship are based on past practices and processes as well as Federal regulations, policy, standards, and guidelines. Trends can have both positive and negative aspects in regards to their effect on cultural resources.

## Climate Change

Climate change in Utah and Wyoming is expected to result in higher temperatures and a reduction in snowfall and water availability. Higher temperatures may not directly impact cultural and historic sites, as the plan area has already experienced a wide range of temperature and moisture level changes. However, higher temperatures and drought are likely to increase the severity, frequency, and extent of wildfires, which could harm numerous sensitive cultural resources (Draft Intermountain Adaptation Partnership: Vulnerability Assessment Summaries, 2016).

## Positive Trends

Some of the positive trends that benefit cultural resources are related to advances in technology and equipment.

- Current data gathering standards and guidelines utilize accurate GIS technology to plot the exact locations of cultural resources, cultural survey boundaries, and Forest activities. Management of cultural site and survey locations with a spatial GIS enables the Ashley National Forest to monitor and manage projects with more accuracy and ease.
- The Ashley National Forest is gradually digitizing cultural resource records and archives, which helps facilitate the ongoing protection of these resources.
- The development of digital cameras over the past 15 years has helped the documentation of cultural resources sites, features, and artifacts. This development increases the accuracy and value of the documentation
- Increased public interest in historic sites and prehistoric sites has increased awareness and the need for protection and preservation of these resources. Some of these sites include the Ute Tower, Swett Ranch, and Henry's Fork Rock Art.
- Adaptive reuse of several historic Guard Stations for recreational cabin rentals has provided incentive and funds to maintain these historic structures.

## Negative Trends and Risk Factors

This section identifies negative trends that affect the condition of cultural and historic resources, including influences of public use and Forest Service management.

- Existing and illegal roads that affect cultural sites.
- Unauthorized excavation, looting, and collection of archaeological artifacts and sites.
- Vandalism of sensitive rock art and archaeological sites.
- Firewood cutting in areas of sensitive cultural resources, such as Ute brush fences.
- Dispersed motorized recreation in archaeologically sensitive areas.
- Cumulative effects of projects encroaching upon and affecting cultural resources sites.
- Wildfires and prescribed fires in archaeologically sensitive areas.
- The Heritage Program does not have adequate staff to meet cultural resource compliance requirements and manage the Heritage Program to Standard.

## Resources at Risk

Forest Service planning directives state that planning teams are to identify “key assumptions, risks, areas of uncertainty, and how the assessment can inform the development of the monitoring program” (FSH 1909.12, section 11.3). Specific resource types or resources within specific areas are at a higher risk than the majority of sites on the Ashley. These include:

- Fragile and delicate cultural resources such as prehistoric basketry, matting, and ceramics
- Artifacts in storage areas that do not meet federal curation standards are deteriorating
- Frequently visited and vandalized rock art sites and cave sites
- Cultural sites located within or adjacent to modern improvements such as reservoirs, campgrounds, range improvements, powerlines, etc.
- Benign neglect of some historic Forest Service Guard Stations because of the lack of funding to maintain them

## Development of a Monitoring Program

The Forest Service developed a historic preservation program as a requirement of Section 110 of the National Historic Preservation Program [(16 USC 470h-2(a)(2)]. Forest Service Manual 2360 outlines the requirements of the historic preservation program and provides guidance for each forest to implement a heritage program that identifies, evaluates, maintains, and preserves cultural and historic properties.

### Heritage Program Managed to Standard

The Forest Service developed the concept of the Heritage Program Managed to Standard (HPMS), which is designed to be the proxy measure of how well a national forest is managing cultural resources. The program measures seven components of heritage management on an annual basis to determine if a heritage program is effective. The program is tied to a national forest’s annual management target (goal). The seven key indicators for a Heritage Program Managed to Standard are:

1. Heritage program planning
2. Cultural resource inventory and survey
3. Cultural resource evaluation
4. Cultural resource condition assessment
5. Heritage resource stewardship and protection
6. Public outreach and benefit
7. Heritage volunteerism

The Heritage Program Managed to Standard has been an Ashley National Forest target or goal since 2010. The Ashley National Forest has not met the requirements for the program since it was implemented, and does not meet the requirements as of July 2016.

### Heritage Program Planning and Monitoring

The National Historic Preservation Act (16 USC 470h-2) and the implementing Forest Service directives (FSM 2362.3) require national forests to develop a Forest Heritage Program Plan. The forest plan should address the goals of the Heritage Program Plan, which include:

1. A synthesis of known cultural resources (Cultural Resource Overview) and a discussion of projected cultural resource numbers, types, and locations within the Ashley National Forest [16 USC 470h-2; FSM 2362.3] -
  - a. A predictive model would help specify areas that are projected to have a high potential to contain cultural resources.
2. Cultural Resource Identification Plan [FSM 2363.1; 16 USC 470h-2(a)(2); 36 CFR 296.21] -
  - a. This plan develops a process and schedule for finding and documenting previously unknown cultural resources on Ashley National Forest lands.
  - b. Under the Archaeological Resources Protection Act, the Forest Service is required “to develop plans for surveying lands under [the] agency’s control to determine the nature and extent of archaeological resources” [16 USC 470mm and 36 CFR 296.21].
  - c. The Ashley National Forest needs to develop a plan to survey areas of the Ashley that have not yet been systematically surveyed for cultural resources.
3. Historic property plans for highly significant historic properties [16 USC 470h-2; FSM 2362.4]
  - a. These should include management goals, objectives for the properties, plans for public use and interpretation, and guidance/restrictions for maintenance.
4. Cultural resource collections curation plan [36 CFR 79; FSM 2366]
  - a. This plan addresses the need to preserve, store, and manage heritage collections.
  - b. These collections can include: archaeological artifacts, historic records, cultural resource inventory records, cultural resource documentation, National Register evaluation records, maps, photographs, etc.
5. Cultural Resource Monitoring Plan [16 USC 470h-2; FSM 2362.5] -
  - a. This program provides the data necessary to evaluate how effective the Ashley National Forest’s protection and preservation efforts have been.
  - b. The program includes annual monitoring targets to assess site conditions and to measure success of treatments.
  - c. The plan also provides data for future planning and protection of cultural resources.
6. Protocols for responding to unanticipated discovery of cultural resources or human remains [16 USC 470h-2; FSM 2362.3; 43 CFR 10.4(g)]
7. Protocols for responding to damage to or theft of cultural resources [16 USC 470h-2, FSM 2362.3; 36 CFR 296.2(b)]
8. Protocols for the protection of cultural resources from wildfires or other natural damage [16 USC 470h-2; FSM 2362.3; 36 CFR 800.12(a)]
9. Heritage outreach and awareness program [FSM 2365; 16 USC 470ii(c); 36 CFR 296.20] -
  - a. This program shares cultural resource information with the public and prescribes methods to increase public awareness of the significance of cultural resources and the need to protect them.

## Heritage Outreach

Connecting cultural resources with the public is a key component of the Heritage Program Plan. Below are methods to increase public awareness, stewardship, and engagement with the public.



- **Enhance public education:** Increase interpretive signs/maps/information; use “friends” group and/or volunteers to interpret sites; provide visitor information using current technologies
- **Partnerships:** Partner with local museums, schools, and the Ute Tribe to enhance education and site stewardship
- **Engage more youth:** Provide cultural presentations to local schools; encourage local field trips
- **Heritage Volunteerism:** Continue to provide opportunities for volunteers at Swett Ranch and Ute Tower; continue to host Passport in Time Projects
- **Heritage Tourism:** Provide historic and cultural information at historic cabins and guard stations rented through the recreation cabin rental; encourage visitation to the Swett Ranch and Ute Tower
- **Increase outreach efforts:** Collaborate with the Uintah Basin Chapter of the Utah Statewide Archaeological Society. Provide cultural resource presentation at local events. Maintain information on the Forest website and Facebook page.

## Summary and Conclusion

Cultural resources are non-renewable resources that require protection under the National Historic Preservation Act. The planning area contains a large number of cultural resources (more than 2,500 prehistoric and historic archaeological sites) that represent a vast range of human activities and occupation over an approximately 12,000-year period. Five of these cultural resources are listed on the National Register of Historic places, with an additional 1,114 evaluated as eligible.

Most of the planning area (83.4 percent) has not been surveyed for cultural resources, and a good deal of existing survey was completed at a reconnaissance level. Thousands of additional, unknown sites are likely to exist within the planning area. Furthermore, many of the known sites need to be evaluated for the National Register of Historic Places and/or have condition assessments conducted. It is known that various activities and projects within the planning area are detrimentally affecting cultural resources.

The use of technology is increasing in the management of our cultural resources. A predictive model, new GPS and GIS technologies, and digital photography are improving the quality and accuracy of data collection in the field. The Natural Resource Management database is the primary platform for all site and event data of the Heritage program. While NRM input is improving, the database is still plagued by erroneous or absent information. Additionally, artifact assemblages are awaiting proper curation and entry into the NRM system.

In 2011, FSM 2360 created a solid foundation for an efficient Heritage Program that protects historic properties and maximizes their benefits for the public and the agency. In the past five years, the Ashley National Forest Heritage Program has not met the goal of having a Heritage Program Managed to Standard.

Since the last Forest plan in 1986, the processes and requirements for the management of cultural resources have changed with added regulations and policies. Since 1986, the number of known cultural resource sites has increased 700 percent (from 345 to over 2,500). The Heritage Program has three permanent staff and has been unable to keep up with the growing project load and meet Heritage Program Standards.

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